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ABSTRACT

Student involvement in educational planning is of importance in ensuring that programs remain responsive to student needs. Such a fundamental shift in perspective in the role of the student requires significant changes, both in attitudes and practices within higher education. To aid in the development of this new role this document draws together all of the Carnegie Commission proposals that are related to current student concerns to aid them in their role in higher education planning and development. Relevant Commission reports published between 1968 and 1972 and included in this document cover: (1) equal educational opportunity; (2) the costs of attending college; (3) the academic environment; (4) student participation in college and university decision making; and (5) educational alternatives. (Author/KE)

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THE COLLEGE STUDENT AND HIGHER EDUCATION POLICY

WHAT STAKE AND WHAT PURPOSE?

Scott C. Wren

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NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

During the summer of 1974 I was asked by Clark Kerr to write a special report about the policy recommendations of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education that concerned college students. He emphasized that this publication was to be written primarily for student readers and therefore oriented toward issues of major relevance to student interests. At that time, I had a background of some four years investigating the higher education world and attempting to get the student viewpoint heard on issues like governance, educational reform, access, and financing. This was a full-time and an often frustrating job, particularly because good information about many of these questions was unavailable to students. Most studies and reports on higher education seldom reach a student audience, and while I was familiar with some of the Carnegie Commission's proposals, I had, by no means, a comprehensive perspective on its recommendations. To gain it would have meant reading each of its 22 reports as well as some of the 80 volumes of sponsored research it published, an onerous task for even the most committed of people. So this opportunity to explain the Carnegie Commission's proposals was both a personal challenge and a chance to make some important information available to students.

Set up in 1967 by The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, well known since the turn of the century for its philanthropic efforts to improve higher education, the Commission was asked to conduct an *independent* investigation into the major problems facing higher education during the rest of this century. Its reports were widely read, discussed, and quoted within colleges and universities, and also in state and federal government, thus making them important material for students to become familiar with.

This publication draws together all of the Commission's proposals that should be of particular importance and concern to students today. I have not attempted to provide my own critique of the Commission's work, but rather have meant this to be a straightforward, resource document for students – leaving the value judgments for each individual to make. Students, like any other group, have a wide range of concerns and there is no one point of view that will be acceptable to all. Thus the main function of this report should be to contribute to an expanded student knowledge base, not only with regard to the Carnegie Commission's specific proposals, but in terms of identifying some of the major educational issues of the times. It is essential, if students are to play an active role in the development and improvement of higher education, to make sure they have full access to the best information available on the problems, resources, and alternatives for meeting present and future educational needs.

Most of the Commission's reports were published between 1968 and 1972, which makes its recommendations somewhere between three and seven years old now. Much has changed since they were written, so some of them will undoubtedly not apply to the current situation. For example, on many campuses student participation in governance has moved considerably beyond the point urged in the Commission's recommendations. The development of statewide and national student representation (chiefly through student lobbies) in state and federal policy-making, hardly mentioned in its reports, has been substantial. My own opinion is that the Commission's recommendations concerning governance were about its weakest as far as students are concerned, being too abstract, out of touch with the realities on campus, and paternalistic in tone.

There is one other point I should make "perfectly clear": *The recommendations of the Carnegie Commission are not universally accepted.* Its proposals represent one of a number of viewpoints on quite a few issues. I am sure that it is viewed as a very liberal outfit by some, and by others as a mouthpiece for the powers that be. Other groups have strongly held alternative positions on issues discussed herein. The whole question of tuition is a good example. Most student groups disagreed with the Commission's recommendations for moderately increased tuition, arguing that higher education should be a right and therefore ought to be free for every individual.

But these caveats are not meant to imply that most of the Commission's recommendations are outdated or represent a narrow point of view. Hardly the case; I find myself in agreement with many of its proposals and with others as far as they go. A proposal may be quite helpful on one campus; yet on another the same proposal might be completely innocuous or simply irrelevant. But that is just the point; such things will depend on the

nature of your campus. There is no "ideal" in this respect as the types of college campuses should and do vary considerably. So you will have to adapt anything you read in this report to your local conditions.

The Carnegie Commission's recommendations covered a wide variety of important issues, but one of its most central concerns was to guarantee all students the right and the means to enter higher education, declaring that

> one of the most urgent national priorities for higher education between now and 1976-77 is the removal of financial barriers for all youth who enroll in our diverse colleges and universities, whether in academic or occupational programs (*Quality and Equality*, p. 17).

But its concerns went beyond providing equal opportunity. It also proposed that colleges and universities greatly increase the number and availability of educational options for students, recognizing that the growing diversity of student backgrounds and objectives need to be accommodated in more individualized ways. Its proposals for shortened time requirements for earning degrees, stop-out periods, increased emphasis on teaching, opportunities for "broad learning experiences," relevance in the curriculum, and uses of instructional technology all sought to "enhance the opportunity for each student, given his natural strengths, to find a learning environment that will best help him to create for himself a fuller and more satisfying life" (*Reform on Campus*, p. 1).

The Commission was also concerned with the increased involvement of students in decisions that affect them as consumers and as participants in higher education. It made recommendations not only for a more *active* role for students in their own learning, but also for more student involvement in curriculum decisions, in the evaluation of teaching, and in the broad administrative decision-making of each campus.

> The Carnegie Commission is generally sympathetic to greater student participation in those areas of governance where they have substantial interest and adequate competence, and where they will assume responsibility. We believe that in such areas students can inform the decision-making agencies about their experiences and desires, give good advice, exercise good judgment, and support innovation. We also strongly emphasize the educational value of participation in governance . . . (*Governance in Higher Education*, p. 68).

In order to provide a spectrum of other viewpoints on the issues discussed in this report and to bring their development up to date, there is a short resource list included at the end of each section. These lists are not

intended to be comprehensive, but they will acquaint you with enough other useful material to give you a general introduction to the various positions on these issues. (The National Student Educational Fund has developed five information kits based on resource lists in this report. For more information see A Concluding Note, following Chapter 5.) The world of higher education is reasonably complex and sometimes quite insane, but there is nothing so mystical about it that can prevent energetic students from putting together a good picture of what's happening fairly quickly. Hopefully this document will provide a good starting point for that effort.

It is also very useful to develop some kind of short and sweet historical perspective on these problems, to counteract those who would study an issue to death. Too often an issue referred to committee for "further study" will remain right there, in committee! And a lot of issues are surprisingly universal, having been kicked around for many years. At Dartmouth College the senior class committee wrote a report evaluating undergraduate education and made the following observation:

> Since the present system of education tends to emphasize passive acquisition of information at the expense of intellectual initiative, we are suggesting that more responsibility and independence be given to the individual student. In the implications of this philosophy lie the most significant suggestions of our report.

Their report was published in May of *1924*, which only serves as a reminder that things in the classroom haven't changed all that much. On this one, "we haven't come a long way, baby."

This historical note raises the question of current avenues of involvement open to students. The possibilities are quite varied, depending upon your interests, time, prior experience, and frustration level. They include anything from becoming a member of some campus committee to working for student representation on committees that should include students but now exclude them, to becoming involved in student government. Off-campus possibilities include setting up a student lobby in your state, or working with one if it already exists. Most importantly, students should realize that their interests and their stake in education will not be adequately represented by anyone else. Ralph Nader's notion of responsible citizenship should also apply to students. The tradition of colleges and universities acting *in loco parentis* was abandoned some time ago with regard to decisions about student life, and students should also seek to ensure that their educational rights are not subject to the same kind of authoritarian control that used to regulate their personal behavior.

A statement that the Carnegie Commission made in its final report struck me as being an especially appropriate one for students to heed: "Studies have been and can be helpful. Effective action is essential. The real achievements are with those who act effectively" (*Priorities for Action*, p. 83).

My special thanks are due to Clark Kerr, who initiated and made possible this publication, and to Verne Stadtman, who provided me with two essential elements: his hearty encouragement and skillful editing. I am also indebted to the student advisory panel, including Kevin Bacon, Linda Bonin, Seth Brunner, Willis Edwards, Valerie McIntire, Drew Olim, and Layton Olson, who reviewed the draft and made some very helpful comments.

Scott C. Wren
March 1975

INTRODUCTION

A Focus on American College Students

Over the last decade the number of students enrolled on college campuses across the country has dramatically increased from 3,789,000 in 1960 to 9,571,000 in 1973. Less obvious, but possibly more significant in the long run, is the growing diversity of college students. They increasingly come from all income groups and ethnic backgrounds, and have divergent political orientations and personal lifestyles. Their interests, abilities, and career goals vary considerably. More older students are returning to the campus (along with the veterans) so that the "youth culture" of 18- to 21-year-olds no longer completely dominates the picture. There also is a growing number of individuals pursuing education on a part-time basis; they are often married and working full-time in addition to carrying their studies. Many of the old stereotypes of the "square" student, the "hip" student, or the "radical" student have to give way to a new perception that the "student" is in fact many students, from the recent high school graduate to the 45-year-old businessman, to the 30-year-old woman desiring a career after having children. The classical concept of students is obsolete, and, in its place, we must come to think of "people" who seek many different educational goals at many different times in their lives and at many different kinds of colleges and universities.

The Carnegie Commission recognized that this wide range of student interests and objectives increases the need for continuing responsiveness to student views and desires. The Commission felt that

> greater attention [should be given] to the wishes of the students, since the students are investing important segments of their lives in the hope that both their lives and the life of society at large may thereby be improved. They are not always right, but they are reasonably well

informed consumers and it is both unwise and inherently wrong to be unconcerned about their reactions and wishes (*Reform on Campus*, p. 34).

It was partially as a result of these sentiments that the Commission in 1969 undertook a landmark survey of student and faculty opinion in the United States, the largest ever carried out. It included 60,000 faculty members, 30,000 graduate students, and 70,000 undergraduates. The results showed substantial general satisfaction among students with academic life, but also some strong specific dissatisfactions. In their overall evaluation, 66 percent of undergraduates were "satisfied" or "very satisfied" with college, while 22 percent were "on the fence" and 12 percent were "dissatisfied" or "very dissatisfied." Only 5 percent of all students thought that they would have been better off if they had never gone to college. Among graduate students, over three-fourths "strongly agreed" or "agreed with reservations" that they were basically satisfied with their education, and about 23 percent of them "disagreed with reservations" or "disagreed strongly."

There was substantial agreement among students and faculty that changes were necessary in three areas, with student support being somewhat greater. These were:

> "Teaching effectiveness, not research, should be the primary criterion for promotion." Ninety-five percent of undergraduates, 89 percent of graduate students and 78 percent of the faculty agreed with this statement (with faculty support being greatest in community colleges and least in research universities).
>
> "Course work should be more relevant to contemporary life and problems." Ninety-one percent of undergraduates and three-fourths of the faculty agreed with this statement.
>
> "More attention should be paid to the emotional growth of students." Eighty-three percent of undergraduates and 71 percent of faculty agreed with this statement (with stronger support by both groups in the fine arts, education, and health fields).

Only partial agreement between students and faculty was found for the creation of a compulsory community service requirement in higher education and for a greater emphasis on broad liberal education, deemphasizing specialized training. Finally, the survey indicated student and faculty disagreement on the questions of whether all grades should be abolished and whether all courses should be put on an elective basis. These findings vary considerably according to the type of college or university and in different fields of study.

The Commission believed that the high level of general student satisfaction actually added to the desirability of taking action in the specific areas of dissatisfaction. Students were not overly inclined to be critical and were selective in evaluating their education. Thus, their specific concerns should be given particular consideration.

In the area of student participation in college and university decision-making, the survey revealed that while few students wanted to control academic life, many seek a greater voice in campus affairs, through voting rights on committees and formal consultation. Student attitudes toward participation also vary by field and by the type of college or university they attend. Social science, humanities, law, education, and social welfare students are most desirous of a greater voice, while those in engineering and other professional schools are least concerned. Students in liberal arts colleges and research universities want more influence than those in two-year colleges. But as a group, undergraduate and graduate students ranked their interests in participation among the alternatives listed, in order of importance, as:

1 student discipline
2 provision and content of courses
3 degree requirements
4 admissions policies
5 faculty appointments and promotion

The survey did show that students desire considerably more authority than most faculty members are willing to give up. The Commission found that this gap in student-faculty attitudes was new and attributed it to the fact that "students have never before so sought to enter areas occupied by faculty authority" (*Governance of Higher Education*, p. 67). Most faculty, are, however, willing to consult formally with students concerning courses and degree requirements and to have their teaching performance evaluated by students.

The "new students" in American colleges and universities are more diverse and independent; they are generally satisfied, but have specific concerns about their educational experience; and they desire a greater voice in decision-making than ever before. A transition must be made from the era in which a student's educational experience was clearly prescribed to the new conditions that put more emphasis on students as "consumers" with adequate resources and with the freedom to choose an educational program suited to their individualized learning needs. It is equally necessary that student involvement in developing educational programs be expanded, in order to ensure that these programs remain responsive to student needs as future circumstances and interests change. Such a

fundamental shift in perspective as to the role of students will require significant changes, both in attitudes and practices within higher education. It is these specific issues as addressed by the Carnegie Commission that constitute the focus of this report.

1

BREAKING THE BARRIERS TO COLLEGE: TOWARD EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY

THE OPPORTUNITY TO go to college has become extremely important in American society. Applicants for many jobs find that a bachelor's degree has become a virtual necessity. College also plays a major role in the lives of persons who seek educational experiences for nonoccupational reasons, such as gaining a greater understanding of self and society. In the past, however, opportunities to attend college have been unequal, especially for minority groups, children of low-income families, and women.

One of the Carnegie Commission's major goals was to suggest ways in which everyone who can benefit from attendance at a college or university, and who has the motivation to go, could be guaranteed a place. But there are still many barriers to complete equality of access to a college education. A lack of money, remoteness from a college or university campus, inadequate information, discrimination, rigid entrance requirements, or insufficient precollege preparation have made education after high school inaccessible to many people.

The Commission believed that by 1976 the economic, curricular, and information barriers to higher education could be eliminated and that by the year 2000 all barriers should be removed so that ability, motivation, and individual choice would become the only factors that determine college attendance. Special programs that aim at overcoming inadequate preparation for college should not be necessary in the twenty-first century. This puts an important responsibility on the elementary and secondary schools to increase their effectiveness—as a first priority. Increasing the college enrollment of low-income and minority students depends greatly on increasing the number of high school graduates in these groups and improving the quality of the early education they receive. This effort must include the elimination of racial segregation, early development of verbal and mathematical skills, and more effective teacher-training programs.

TABLE 1. Percentage of 18- to 24-year age population currently enrolled as undergraduates in public and private colleges, by family income level, fall 1971

Family income	Public institutions			Private institutions			Total attending college
	2-year	4-year	Total public	2-year	4-year	Total private	
Under $3,000	2.2%	7.8%	10.0%	0.4%	1.9%	2.3%	12.3%
$3,000-$5,000	3.1	8.8	11.9	0.3	2.4	2.7	14.6
$5,000-$7,500	4.4	8.0	12.4	0.2	1.8	2.1	14.5
$7,500-$10,000	5.2	10.3	15.4	0.2	2.7	2.9	18.3
$10,000-$15,000	7.5	14.6	22.1	0.4	5.1	5.5	27.6
Over $15,000	8.6	24.8	33.3	0.8	11.6	12.4	45.7
All income groups	5.6	12.8	18.3	0.4	4.4	4.8	23.1

SOURCE: See Table 27, *Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?*, 1973.

The Commission realized that, while the costs of such efforts will be high, they are basic to the nation's future:

> The cost of social services needed to cope with the consequences of educational disadvantage far outruns the economic support necessary to confront the sources of deprivation. Inequality of opportunity must not continue to sap the strength of our nation (*A Chance to Learn*, p. 29).

Financial Aid

Low-income families usually cannot afford to contribute to educational expenses, and in many cases their children are forced to forgo college attendance. The Commission advocated a comprehensive federal program of financial aid that would give every student adequate funds to meet both his or her educational costs and living expenses (these proposals are discussed fully in the next section of this report).

The Information Gap

A lack of clear information on college opportunities discourages many students from considering college attendance. Most counseling programs at the high school level have been very weak, in part because the information about college opportunities available to them is inadequate. High school guidance programs should help students identify their educational and career interests early. This will require the collection of extensive career information and more informative materials from colleges and

universities. But the information system should not be solely dependent on a one-to-one student-counselor relationship. The Commission found that

> too much information has been focused in the past upon the counselor himself as a source of guidance. The future calls for a counseling system in which the student makes his own decisions based upon information from many sources (*Continuity and Discontinuity*, p. 48).

Students have a right to as much information about colleges as is provided to colleges about students. Too often, college brochures and catalogs are more concerned with an image than with reality, and colleges themselves need to be more realistically descriptive of their programs, facilities, faculty, and students, as well as of their costs and the availability of financial aid.

Information barriers are particularly serious for disadvantaged students, for without special efforts to encourage their attendance, they are less likely to take advantage of available opportunities. An important Commission proposal was for the establishment of Educational Opportunity Centers, which would serve areas with major concentrations of low-income families. These centers would provide information and advice on career options and higher educational opportunities and offer year-round tutorials for elementary and secondary school children. College students could play a particularly valuable role in these centers (as well as in the schools) as tutors and counselors. The Commission felt that such student involvement would not only be educationally beneficial, but contact with college students could enlarge the numbers of college-bound women and minority high school students by making college seem more of a reality.

Active recruiting is also required. Institutions located in areas with large concentrations of low-income families should combine their efforts to identify prospective students. College students could be utilized in such a program because they can give a valuable personalized view of college to high school students. The activities of these groups could be coordinated with nearby Educational Opportunity Centers, if they are established, and with local high school counselors, so that "prospective students [would be] advised on the full range of institutional resources and curricular programs available" (*A Chance to Learn*, p. 8).

Within the high schools, the federal government has been funding a program for guiding, counseling, and testing students to identify and encourage able students to continue on to college. The Commission urged expansion of this program to include "potentially able students." The decisions students make early in high school about college attendance are very important because they affect the subsequent preparation they make

for life after high school graduation. Students who have had limited opportunities early in school should be given special support and encouragement in high school so they can adequately prepare for later college studies.

Such encouragement is also important for women. The first priority in achieving equal educational opportunity for women is to eliminate the precollege practices and attitudes of the educational system that deter women from aspiring to equality with men in career goals. Especially important are counseling that is free of stereotypes of male and female careers, and encouragement for women to gain the mathematical training in high school that is necessary for many careers traditionally considered open only to males.

Universal Access

The Carnegie Commission was completely opposed to a goal of "universal *attendance*," that would *require* every young person to attend college. Many individuals, after finishing high school, do not want to go on to college, and not every person can benefit from the experience. The goal of "universal *access*" can and should be achieved, however. Under universal access every person who wants to attend college will be guaranteed a place in an institution of higher education. As the Commission noted,

> most campuses should no longer and can no longer build medieval walls around themselves as self-contained universities or colleges; instead they must create pathways to their many doors (*The Campus and the City*, p. 5).

All colleges and universities have roles to play in enlarging access to higher education—seeking out qualified students, offering programs of financial assistance, eliminating discrimination on the basis of race, religion, or sex, and developing methods for assisting underprepared students to make up deficiencies.

The two-year community colleges (institutions that offer *comprehensive* programs in academic, occupational, and general education fields, including adult education) have a particularly vital role to play in the provision of universal access. They should operate under completely open admissions, accepting any high school graduate or any person over 18 years old. The comprehensive nature of these colleges offers students who have not made firm career choices meaningful options to choose from, and the open admissions policy creates a continuing opportunity to enter higher education for students who cannot go, or choose not to go, to college immediately after high school. The Commission recommended that a community college should be within commuting distance of every potential

student. Especially in metropolitan areas, a lack of adequate financial resources or the necessity of working or living at home forces many students either to enroll in college in the city of their residence or to forgo attendance. As several studies have shown, over one-half of high school graduates attend college if a public community college is located in their area, but only one-third attend without one.

The final important link in achieving universal access is to provide sufficient transfer opportunities to four-year institutions after students have completed their first two years in community college academic programs. The Commission stressed that "full transfer rights should be provided qualified graduates of community colleges" (*The Open-Door Colleges*, p. 1). In those cases where institutions are forced for budgetary reasons to reject some qualified students, top admissions priority should be given to transfer students from community colleges.

Admission to College

Even with good information and enough money to attend college, many students are confronted with an urgent question: "Will I be accepted?" The Carnegie Commission found that present admissions requirements are often too detailed. The traditional "college-prep" program in high school has become outdated; every student can find a place in college regardless of his or her high school program. Good skills in reading, writing, and mathematics are essential for every high school graduate, but beyond those skills, colleges and universities should not require or suggest a particular course of study in high school unless it is *directly* related to that college's own program.

Students' scores on standardized tests weigh heavily in college admissions decisions. In some cases, too much emphasis is given to these results. Relying heavily upon test scores implies a precision in evaluating students that does not exist. The Commission noted that

> the more reliance placed upon a single test taken on a single day, without any other record that might possibly give a different picture of the student's total performance over years of schooling, the more unfair the process is to the students, the greater the anxiety, and the less comprehensive the picture of the student's ability (*Continuity and Discontinuity*, p. 50).

Present admissions practices, of which tests are a part, have led to the low representation of women and minorities in colleges. Testing cannot, therefore, be separated from the issue of achieving social justice for groups who, in the past, have had unequal opportunities. The Carnegie Commission

called for more experimentation with admissions procedures and requirements in all kinds of colleges and universities. This is especially needed at the most selective ones, which tend to be copied elsewhere. The Commission suggested that selective institutions provide up to 10 percent of their enrollment on the basis of flexible admissions, emphasizing that, "until these institutions show a willingness to experiment, the general admissions scene throughout the country will not improve" (*Continuity and Discontinuity*, p. 51).

Compensatory Programs for the Disadvantaged

Students arrive on a campus with a wide range of preparation, and many, due to limited opportunities in their earlier education, need special help. Yet, too often students with different backgrounds and preparation are put into a prescribed curriculum and expected to proceed at a prescribed rate. The Commission strongly supported more individualized programs geared to a student's own pace, but cautioned that colleges and universities must commit the resources necessary to enable disadvantaged students to move into regular course work in no more than two years. The objective of more flexible admissions criteria is not to lower the quality of education, but to give students additional opportunities and time to overcome disadvantages that have limited their academic progress.

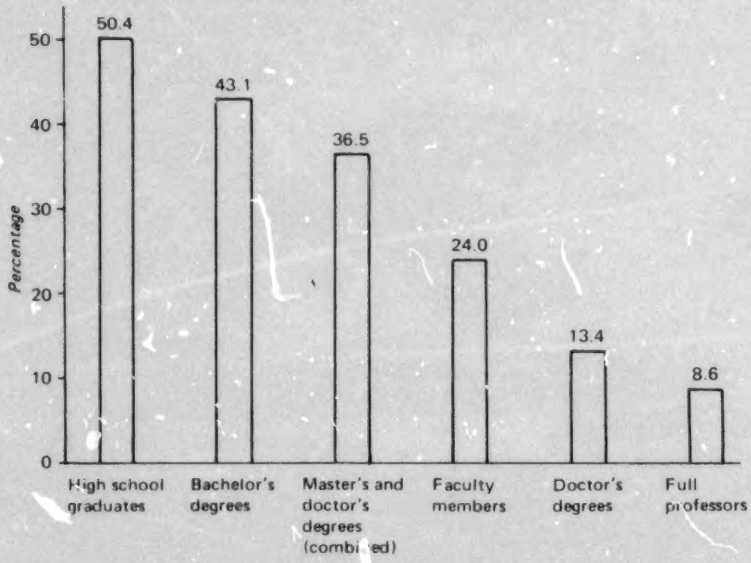
Compensatory or "remedial" programs would fit best into a "foundation year" program that would be available to all students on an optional basis. During this first-year program students would be given intensive counseling and wide latitude to find programs that fit their individual interests and learning needs. Course work in the foundation year would be tailored to more rapid, less rapid, or customary progress:

> If college were to structure the first-year course work for each student according to his own preparation, maturation, work schedule and educational objectives, with the help of precollege examinations and individual faculty advisors, then no group—as a group—would be identified as special or disadvantaged, and all could be better served educationally (*A Chance to Learn*, pp. 13-14).

The Special Problems for Women

The Commission urged a greater concern for fairness in admissions for women as undergraduates and particularly at the graduate level. The most important discriminatory factor in women's admission to graduate school are rules and informal practices that discourage part-time study. Many departments prefer full-time students who are likely to finish more quickly,

CHART 1. Women as a percentage of persons at selected levels of advancement within the educational system, 1970



SOURCE: See Chart 1. *Opportunities for Women in Higher Education*, 1973.

obtain faculty positions in prestigious colleges, and gain a good reputation in their field. The Commission, however, found no justification for discrimination based on sex or marital status in graduate admissions and urged that students with family responsibilities be allowed to study part time. Women who want to enter a graduate or professional school after some years out of college, and who meet departmental standards for admission according to their grade point averages, should be allowed to make up any special requirements they may not have fulfilled.

The Commission also endorsed stronger efforts to recruit more women and members of minority groups into faculty and administrative positions. It supported the general objectives of the affirmative action program for women being instituted by the federal government, noting that

> their greater presence would contribute not only to enhanced social justice but also to the effectiveness of higher education by providing models for women and minority students to emulate, a reservoir of greater sensitivity to their special interests and problems—more "mentors," and generally more sources of talent than are now available (*Priorities for Action*, p. 37).

Another barrier for women is the lack of child-care services at many institutions, and the Commission endorsed the idea that colleges should cooperate with other community agencies to see that such services are provided.

Finally, the Commission called upon administrators to encourage the expansion of opportunities for women, and require that departments and schools actively recruit women and maintain detailed records indicating the reasons for accepting or rejecting all applicants to their programs. But the Commission saw the most important need as

> a change in attitude [that] will come slowly and federal pressure for affirmative action and pressure from campus and professional women's groups . . . in the interim. But we hope that these types of pressures are a transitional need, and that as attitudes change, aspirations of women toward participation in higher education on a basis of equal opportunity with men will come to be taken for granted (*Opportunities for Women in Higher Education*, p. 165).

Attending an Out-of-State College

In the fall of 1968, one-sixth of all college students attended college outside of their home states. But in public institutions, the barriers to nonresident students have been increasing and include higher tuition, more selective admissions standards, and quotas. The Commission felt that these requirements were too restrictive; indeed, the lack of uniformity in residence requirements among the states has led to situations where some students could not qualify as residents of any state. Each state should review and modify its requirements to grant immediate residence to students from families who have moved for other than educational reasons.

At the graduate level, a much higher degree of interstate cooperation is needed. The high costs of graduate and professional instruction make it difficult for every state to offer a complete range of programs, thus forcing students to seek enrollment out-of-state or not at all. The Commission advocated that these programs should be considered on a national basis and graduate students of high ability should be able to attend public institutions regardless of their state of residency. At the graduate level, the extension of educational opportunity should not be arbitrarily limited by state boundaries.

Resource List

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2

THE COSTS OF ATTENDING COLLEGE: CAN STUDENTS AFFORD IT?

AN IMPORTANT QUESTION for almost all students is how they are going to get the money they need to go to college. Living costs are increasing and tuition is rising at many campuses. Some students can rely on their families to pay for their expenses, but others cannot.

The Carnegie Commission proposed several new programs to assist students who need financial help to attend college. Their proposals are aimed primarily at students whose parents cannot afford to contribute significantly to their college expenses. The grant, work-study, and loan programs the Commission recommended are based on the premise that financial aid should go directly to the students, giving them free choices to decide what institutions to attend. With "portable" aid that travels along with them, students can become more independent as "consumers" in choosing a college or university. Students will be in a better position to make intelligent decisions about the type and quality of education an institution can offer them if they are not its financial captives, dependent on their financial support.

Equal Opportunity Grants

In the Commission's first report, *Quality and Equality*, it proposed a federal grant program based on financial need to provide a maximum grant of $1,000 per year for no more than four years as an undergraduate, and $2,000 per year for no longer than two years for graduate students. Each family would be expected to provide some money toward educational expenses, based on a sliding scale according to family income over several years and upon family assets and the number and ages of children in the family.

Since the writing of that report, the federal government has passed legislation (in 1972) creating the Basic Educational Opportunity Grant program (BEOG). The BEOG program embodies the original Carnegie Commission concept of guaranteeing each student a "financial floor" in meeting college expenses. Unlike the original Carnegie proposal, which only covered living expenses, the BEOG is to be used for tuition and living expenses, in amounts of up to $1,400. The total amount that can be awarded to a student was restricted so that it could not exceed 50 percent of total yearly college costs. The student's family is expected to contribute some part of the $1,400, but families with a very low income would be expected to contribute very little, while a student with wealthy parents could not expect, except in very unusual circumstances, to be eligible for a grant.

To make this new program fully serve its purposes, three major improvements are needed. First, it must be fully funded by Congress. While it is "on the books" that the program will provide up to $1,400, it provides a smaller percentage of this amount because of inadequate funding. Second, the limitation to 50 percent of total yearly costs should be raised to 75 percent for the lower-division student. (The Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education has subsequently made slightly different recommendations. See Resource List.) Under the present limitation, depending on the expected family contribution, the grants might be so small as to not really guarantee some students financial access to a college education.

Finally, the $1,400 ceiling on the amount of a grant should be raised along with any increases that occur in educational costs and living expenses. With these improvements, the BEOG program "will be a major step toward implementing the policies that have been recommended by the Commission" (*Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?*, p. 105).

Work-Study Program

The federal work-study program is designed to promote the part-time employment of students both on and off campus in nonprofit agencies involved in community service. Students can work up to 15 hours a week while enrolled, and 40 hours per week during summers and other vacation periods. The program is administered by each college or university, but the federal government pays 80 percent of the student participant's hourly salary.

> The Commission recommends continuation and expansion of the work-study program with federal funding sufficient to enable those undergraduate students who meet, in general terms, the federal need

criteria to earn up to $1,000 during the academic year, working not more than the equivalent of two days per week. Off-campus assignments of educational importance, such as tutorial work, should be encouraged (*Quality and Equality, Revised,* p. 6; also see the Carnegie Council's report on *The Federal Role in Higher Education* for modified recommendations).

Student Loan Program

Grants and work-study aid would give students from low-income families initial entry to higher education at a low-cost institution. Students from middle-class homes would have intitial entry provided through parental support. But for students who desire to attend a college or university away from home or a high-cost institution, a student loan program should be available to provide the extra funds. The Commission stressed, however, that such a loan program should only be used "as a supplement to our other proposals, rather than as the basic or sole program for both student and institutional support" (*Quality and Equality,* p. 28).

The two existing loan programs, the Guaranteed Student Loans (GSL) and National Direct Student Loans (NDSL), were both criticized by the Commission for being underfunded, having limited eligibility, insufficient repayment time, and an unreasonable differential in interest rates (GSL at 7 percent, NDSL at 3 percent)—all of which have "imposed high burdens and discouraged applicants" (*Quality and Equality,* p. 28).

In their place, the Carnegie Commission advocated a federal program of much greater scope that would be available for all students according to their financial need. Undergraduates would be able to obtain loans of up to $2,500 per year; graduate students could obtain $3,500 per year. One significant improvement in the proposed program would be repayment provisions that would allow the borrower to repay a fixed percentage (three-quarters of 1 percent) of annual income per thousand dollars owed, until the loan and interest were repaid. The average estimated repayment period would be about 20 years.

Unlike the present programs, with a fixed maximum repayment period of 10 years, the Carnegie proposal has the advantage of adjusting repayment to the level of an individual's income. When income is high, the payments will be larger, but when income is low, payments will also be low—concentrating the burden of repayment at times when borrowers can most afford it.

The initial payment would not be due until two years after a student received a bachelor's degree, as compared to only nine months under the present programs. Additionally, payment could be deferred for up to three years for participation in the armed forces or in a national service program

such as VISTA or the Peace Corps, or when an individual's income fell below a subsistence level. Finally, interest on loans would be set at a level to cover administrative costs but would be well below commercial rates. Without all the complex provisions of present programs for interest waivers, forgiveness features, and eligibility – all of which require extensive policing to prevent abuse – student loans would be readily available and would expand student choice in selecting a college or university.

The Financial Aid Package

The Commission conceived of its financial aid proposals as a "package" of grants, work-study, and loans to be combined in flexible ways in order to meet differing individual circumstances. In addition, aid should be available to students enrolled in technical and vocational programs as well as to those enrolled in academic programs, and it should be available to students enrolled part-time on a proportional basis. No student should be entitled to more aid, from all sources, than the total cost of educational and living expenses as recognized by the enrolling institution.

The policy of granting financial aid directly to students and thus making financing more "market"-oriented, will create incentives for colleges and universities to be more responsive to student needs, and will also give students reasons to consider their options more carefully and make choices more wisely.

State Supplemental Student Aid

The Commission felt that state scholarship programs should supplement federal grants to low-income students. Some existing state programs award scholarships on the basis of academic merit. The Commission favored a need-based program that would provide aid up to 25 percent of the cost of attending a public institution. This would supplement the BEOG program, providing students with full financial need a combination of federal and state grants covering 100 percent of their costs in the first two years. To encourage all states to assume their share of providing supplemental student aid, Congress created the State Student Incentive Grant (SSIG) program in 1972. The SSIG program will match state grants with an equal amount of federal funds. However, under existing legislation, it only applies to new state funds used for grants, thus penalizing those states that already have sizable programs. The Commission recommended that the SSIG program be modified to provide funds equal to one-fourth the amount of the *total* state awards to students, thus creating an incentive for all states to increase the funding of their scholarship programs.

Doctoral Fellowships

An adequate fellowship program is needed to ensure that highly talented students are able to continue into graduate study. The Commission recommended that Educational Opportunity Grants be available during the first two years of graduate study. After this period, the Commission proposed a single fellowship program for graduate students who have been advanced to candidacy. Fellowships would be awarded on the basis of merit, without regard to need. Qualified students would be able to obtain a maximum two-year award of $3,000 to cover their research and dissertation writing.

The number of awards would be equal to one-half of the average number of Ph.D. degrees granted over the three preceding years, with 50 percent selected by national competition, and 50 percent allocated to specific graduate departments to award.

The Commission also endorsed a grant program for medical and dental students because of the very high costs of health-science instruction. The need for grants to low-income students in this field is especially strong, because the large loans required to finance educational expenses has discouraged many otherwise qualified students from seeking such training. The grants would be based on a student's financial need, but could not exceed $4,000 per year.

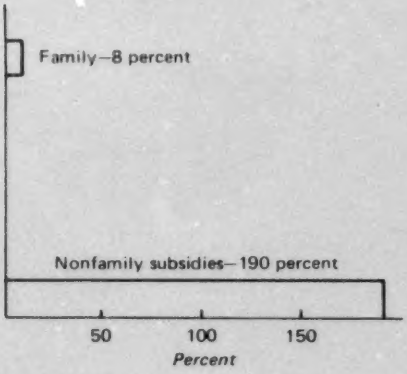
Tuition Policy and Prices

Tuition affects students directly. It is payment for "educational" costs and services provided by an institution and ranges from zero in some public community colleges to several thousand dollars per year at some private colleges and universities. Educational costs include direct instructional expenses and instructionally related costs, including such things as libraries, general administration, and student services.

Higher education is not cheap, and someone ends up paying for it regardless of the share paid by students in tuition. Educational costs have been rising rapidly over the last three decades. Before World War II, public expenditures were about $300 per student; today they are three times as much, without adding inflation to the total. As costs have risen and the number of students has increased, public expenditures for higher education have risen dramatically; from $216 million in 1939-40 to over $13 billion in 1971-72. If one adds to this sum the estimated average cost of students' living expenses and the income forgone by students attending college instead of working, total "economic costs" were astronomical—totaling $39 billion, a sum larger than the combined general expenditures for the states of California and New York during the same year.

This constant escalation of public expenditures has led public colleges to increase tuition charges to students in the last few years as a way of slow-

CHART 2. Rise in real cost per student (a) to family and (b) to nonfamily subsidies, 1929-30 to 1969-70



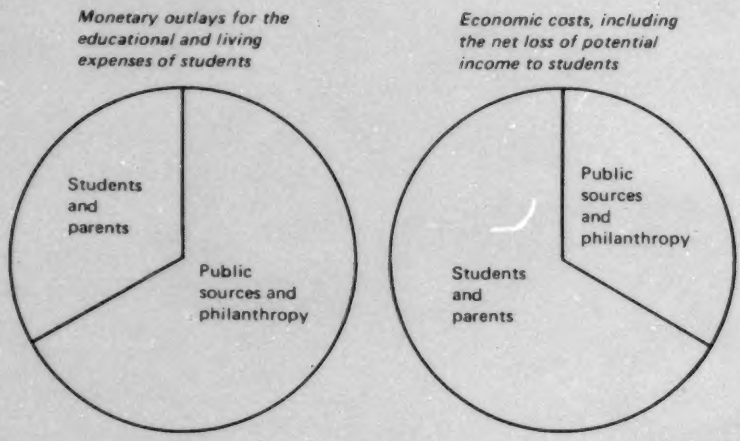
SOURCE: Chart 9, *Tuition: A Supplemental Statement to the Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education on 'Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?'*, 1974.

ing down governmental spending and keeping taxes from increasing. But in terms of total economic costs, students already pay significantly for their education through forgone income and their living expenses. Thus, considerable debate has developed over how much students should pay for their education.

At one extreme are those who believe that most of the benefits of a college education go to the students in the form of better jobs, higher wages, and other advantages, and thus students should pay the full cost of their education through high tuitions. On the other side of this debate are those who argue that society benefits most from a college-educated population, in terms of social mobility and cohesion, citizenship, literacy, increased productivity, humanitarianism, and other effects. They believe that a college education ought to be entirely free to the individual and that the costs should be borne by all the taxpayers through the state and federal governments.

The Carnegie Commission, after examining these arguments, recognized that there are benefits both to individuals and to society. It underscored the fact that these benefits were very hard to enumerate and quantify monetarily, and found much of the current debate more political than economic in nature. The Commission concluded that, all things considered, the historical system of individual and public financing has worked reasonably well and that a drastic redistribution of costs, either to the

CHART 3. Costs of higher education


Monetary outlays for the educational and living expenses of students
Students and parents
Public sources and philanthropy
Economic costs, including the net loss of potential income to students
Public sources and philanthropy
Students and parents

SOURCE: See Chart 1. *Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?*, 1973.

student or to the taxpayer, was unwarranted. It did, however, recommend two improvements that would remove financial barriers to college attendance by making public support for students more selective and equitable and targeting financial aid to those students who need it most.

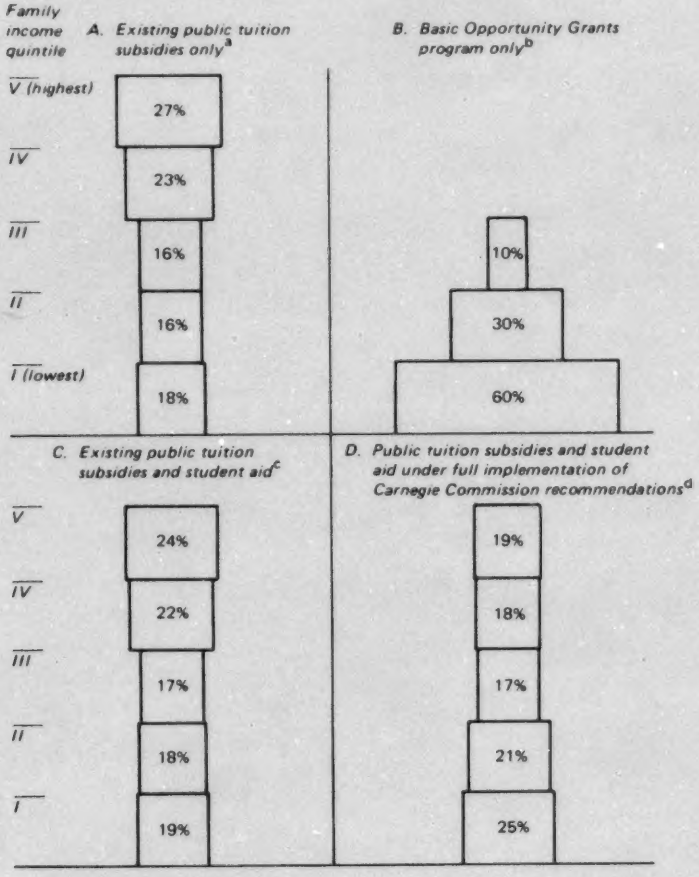
First, the proportion of public funding should be increased to ensure the attendance of students from low-income families who are dependent on public support. The basic responsibility for this equalization of educational opportunity should be carried as a public cost at the federal level, not by students or by institutions.

Second, student subsidies (the portion of costs borne by public funds) should be redistributed according to an individual's ability to pay. This can be accomplished by charging higher tuition to those who can afford it (middle- and upper-income students) and by providing more financial aid to lower-income students through the full funding of the BEOG program and state supplemental scholarship programs.

At present, the public subsidy going to students from middle- and high-income families is as great as to those from low-income families. Because a greater percentage of middle- and high-income students attend college, and because the share of family income that goes to pay for college is less for these groups, they benefit more from present financing arrangements.

Over two-thirds of public funds now go to subsidize the "price" of college, in other words, to keep tuition down. Thus, all students receive an

CHART 4. Distribution of public subsidy funds benefiting undergraduates, by family income quintile, under four alternative assumptions.



SOURCE: See Chart 3, *Tuition: A Supplemental Statement to the Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education on 'Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?'*, 1974.

[a] Includes tuition subsidies at public institutions and estimated tuition subsidies from public funds at private institutions.

[b] Assumes total annual expenditures of $1.3 billion, as recommended by the federal administration for 1974-75, and existing eligibility standards.

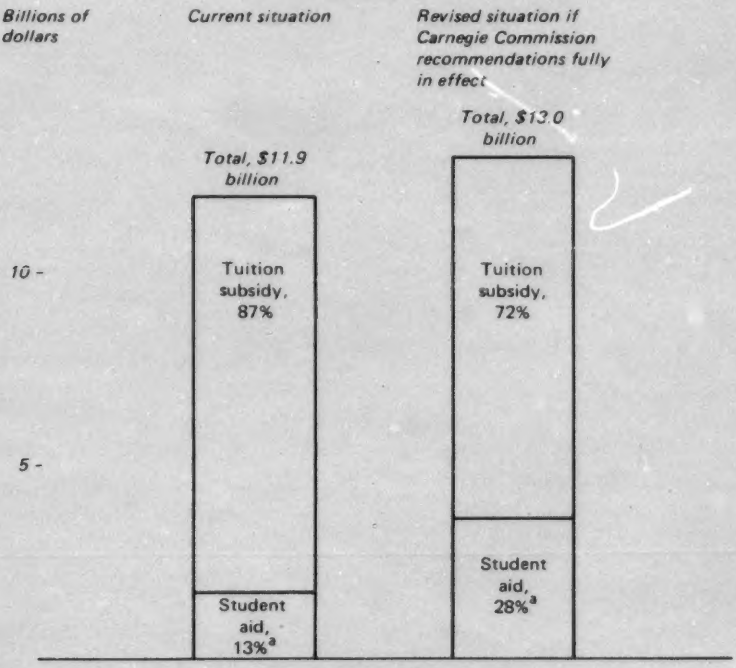
[c] Includes total estimated tuition subsidies and student aid from public funds at public and private institutions.

[d] Includes modified tuition subsidies at public institutions, estimated tuition subsidies from public funds at private institutions, and total student aid from public funds, including increases recommended by the Commission.

equal subsidy, even though middle- and high-income families could afford to pay more, and low-income families cannot afford the cost of college even with low tuition. Greater equity would be achieved through some redistribution of costs, by raising tuition at some institutions and at the same time increasing financial aid programs. Under this policy, the public subsidy would be given through the awarding of financial aid according to need rather than through holding down the price of tuition, thus targeting the subsidy to those students who need it most. As the Commission noted, "Greater equity in treatment between high- and low-income students requires some rise in tuition for those who can pay as well as more subsidies for those who cannot . . ." (*Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?*, p. 10).

The Commission recommended that where tuition at public institutions has not already reached a level of approximately one-third of educational costs, it should rise to that level over several years. Public tuition in

CHART 5. Student subsidies from public sources, estimated 1973-74



SOURCE: See Chart 1. *Tuition: A Supplemental Statement to the Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education on 'Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?'*, 1974.

[a]Excludes veterans' benefits, social security benefits, and cost of loans.

some states is already at the one-third level, but the national average is still low – between one-fourth and one-fifth of educational costs. The Commission strongly emphasized, however, that tuition and financial aid policy are interdependent, stating: *"We are opposed to any increase in tuition at public institutions except as such increases are offset by the availability of adequate student aid for lower-income students"* (*Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?*, p. 10; italics in original).

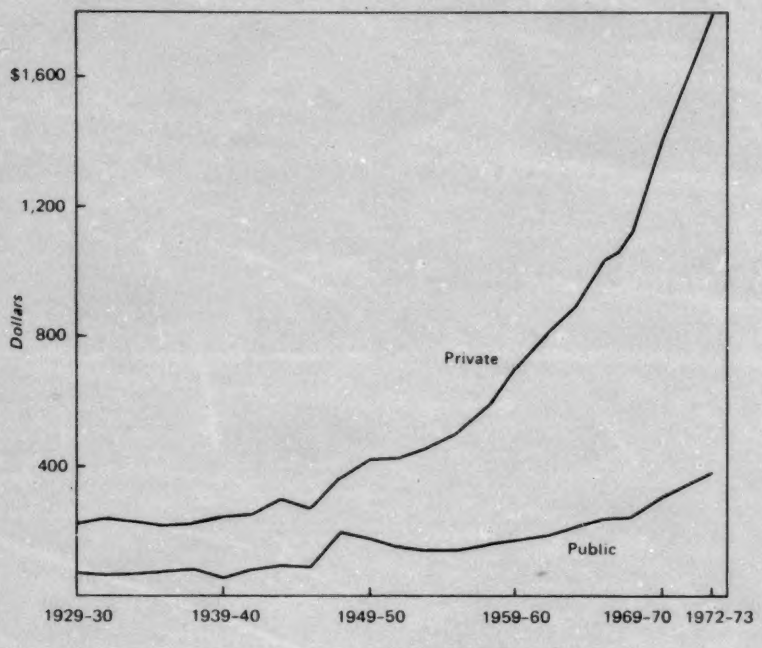
The Commission also urged that tuition should be differentiated by charging no or low tuition for lower-division students, higher charges at the upper-division level, and considerably higher charges at the graduate level. Low or no tuition during the first two years of college is regarded as essential to achieving "universal access" to higher education. Lower-division instruction costs the least, and because many new students are uncertain about their prospects for success in college, they are especially reluctant to borrow funds for education at this level. Beyond the first two years, students are more sure of their educational goals, will gain more benefits from achieving them, and thus should be willing to bear more of the costs.

The intent of these recommendations is to distribute a *limited* public subsidy in a way that guarantees that no student will be barred from college because of inadequate finances. Middle- and high-income families can afford to contribute significantly to college costs; low-income families cannot. In this context, a policy of relatively low tuition in the first two years means that tuition is set at a level that requires no funds of the lower-income student after he or she has received financial aid. This policy also means that it will be less difficult for these students to attend a private college or university, because, when the BEOG program is fully funded, even the low-income student will have some money to pay for tuition. Private colleges should not be the domain solely of the rich, but because of rising tuition, they have become almost inaccessible to many low-income students, even with some financial aid.

The Commission's proposals, if implemented in their entirety, should go a long way toward achieving the long-promised goal of giving every student the right and the means to enter higher education. The net effect will be to retain the same overall share of college costs traditionally paid by students and parents on the one hand, and by taxpayers on the other, but to change the way this is distributed, in order to ensure the access of students from low-income groups, who have been disadvantaged in the past. As the Commission staff observed in its supplemental statement on tuition policy:

> The Carnegie Commission has at all times been most concerned that the long-standing and very basic American promise of equality of

CHART 6. Average tuition charges in public and private institutions per FTE student, 1929-30 to 1972-73



SOURCE: See Chart 5A. *Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?*, 1973.

opportunity be fulfilled in the very near future. Concern for this national commitment . . . was a major factor in the proposal for comparatively greater support for those elements of the population with relative deprivation in college attendance – the lower-income groups (*Tuition*, p. 31).

Resource List

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3

THE ACADEMIC ENVIRONMENT: THE NEED FOR EXPANDING EDUCATIONAL OPTIONS

MUCH OF WHAT takes place in the classroom today is not strikingly different from the instruction generally available over 300 years ago. Higher education has been a tradition-laden enterprise, slow to adapt itself to new developments. Although universities are a major source of innovation for society, they tend to be quite conservative when it comes to their own operation. While "old" methods are not necessarily "bad" methods, neither is teaching a sacred ritual to be repeated without change down through the centuries. The Carnegie Commission believed that education must change in order to accommodate itself to the new times. It concluded that "academic reform is needed urgently in a number of directions, although we do not consider higher education as a whole to be experiencing a deep academic crisis. Such a deep crisis may occur in the future, however, if needed reforms do not occur now" (*Reform on Campus*, p. 30).

But to accomplish needed reforms, it is necessary to determine what functions are appropriate for academic institutions. This requires a clear definition of academic purposes. The Commission believed that colleges and universities should continue to place greatest emphasis on the cultivation of the intellect, on rationality, and on attempted objectivity based on facts and logical argument. Special purposes that evolve out of this mission, such as the search for new knowledge and the independent criticism of society, are fragile activities that must be vigorously protected in order to ensure their integrity. The Commission also believed that the campus is a "multipurpose," not an "all-purpose" institution and that it should not concentrate solely on emotional development or condone ideological orientations that seek to exclude consideration of alternatives and differing points of view. Many other institutions, within and around college campuses, exist to serve strictly nonacademic purposes.

Education should have as its basic orientation the study of subject matter and the development of mental skills. Any other fundamental orientation runs contrary to the nature of academic life. But this is not to say that the intellectual approach includes only logic in the search for truth and knowledge; it also includes such things as aesthetics in the appreciation of art and nature, as well as ethics in the pursuit of definitions of virtue.

Within these broad purposes, the Carnegie Commission favored diversified approaches to increase the variety of instruction available to students. It proposed specific reforms aimed at giving students the ability to choose a "learning environment" that best helps each individual create a more full and satisfying life. The new emphasis "goes beyond the enhancement of productive skills, essential as this is. The new emphasis is on the development of individual human capabilities to enhance the quality of life in all its aspects and to enhance individual and social well-being" (*Reform on Campus*, p. 2).

Major Directions for Reform: Diversity

The Commission urged each campus to identify its own unique goals and methods. It believed that there is no "best" way to learn and to organize instruction, and that the varied backgrounds and interests of students necessitate varied educational approaches.

The differentiation of instructional styles and techniques can occur within a single campus as well as among different institutions. For example, a number of "cluster colleges" or theme-oriented colleges could be established on a large campus and each one encouraged to develop unique programs. Students would be better served by having many instructional alternatives to choose from, instead of the present situation in which one chooses a specific major but, regardless of choice, receives instruction in only one way: through lectures, textbooks, occasional discussion groups, and frequent tests, all of which take place in 10- or 15-week standard segments.

Broad Learning Experiences

Undergraduate education usually consists of three basic components of study:

- the *major*, which provides a student with in-depth study in one field
- *free electives*, which enable a student to pursue specific interests one at a time

- *general education* or "breadth" courses, which attempt to focus on some major aspects of world culture or human thought

Breadth courses often serve exclusively as an introduction to a specific field or attempt to "survey" a field, covering too much material in too little depth. In some institutions, breadth requirements have been abolished, but with nothing to replace them. The Commission regretted the loss. Students generally desire a better understanding of society and their individual roles within it, but they cannot always find such understanding on their own. Dropping all education requirements results in "an often aimless and unguided searching by students among discrete and disconnected courses. Coherence is not likely to emerge from uncoordinated bits and pieces" (*Reform on Campus*, p. 44).

No one can hope to fully comprehend the enormous and constantly increasing totality of human knowledge; it cannot even be widely sampled during four years of college. But since students can't be taught "everything," the issue of what an "educated person" can and should know arises. And the teaching (or transmission) of all existing knowledge becomes less essential than the development of skills for continuing education.

The Carnegie Commission proposed dropping the term "general education," which emphasized preselected content, and the development of what it called "broad learning experiences." Every institution would have a number of broad learning experiences for students to choose from. The object of such programs would be to help students develop a perspective on some broad aspect of human knowledge. One example might be Far Eastern Civilization, which would interrelate the history, philosophy, art, and literature of this culture. Other programs might concentrate on man and the physical environment or on world views that explore the conservative, liberal, anarchist, Marxist, and religious perspectives. The possible options are almost limitless, but the Commission stressed that the approach should be:

> not of *what* all students know but of *how* all students may be helped to confront large bodies of knowledge and large issues. The emphasis is more on a general process and less on specific and uniform content – on cultivation of curiosity, on development of critical ability, on wider perspectives, on self and on cultures, on ways to approach knowledge (*Reform on Campus*, p. 43).

The Relevant Curriculum

Relevant courses were defined by the Carnegie Commission as "courses that relate directly to actual personal interests of students and to current

social problems" (*Reform on Campus*, p. 45). The Commission endorsed efforts to create special programs for the interests of ethnic groups and women, problem-oriented courses focused on such issues as the environment, a new emphasis on the creative arts, and more attention to world cultures. While courses on the special interests of women and ethnic groups serve an important and neglected purpose, the Commission was not in favor of separate departments for such studies. It believed, instead, that majors in these areas should be interdisciplinary, with much better information on the problems and contributions of women and ethnic groups included as an integral part of every discipline.

More generally, the Commission endorsed efforts to review the curriculum as a whole, to assess its broad relevance not only to student interests, but also to establish its purpose and its relationship to learning that takes place both before and after college. This kind of examination can be undertaken most fruitfully at the departmental or professional school level, and "students can most effectively be associated with the results if they have voting membership on the curriculum committees . . ." (*Reform on Campus*, p. 46).

Teaching

After World War II the dominant emphasis of the academic world came to be research. There is now considerable criticism on the part of students and others that the teaching function has been neglected. The Commission agreed. It felt that while organized research is "inextricably tied to instruction" at leading research universities and should not be deemphasized, in all institutions "a greater emphasis on the prestige of the art of teaching is both possible and desirable" (*Reform on Campus*, pp. 47-48).

To strengthen undergraduate teaching excellence, the Commission advocated creating funds for faculty to use in developing new teaching approaches, awards to honor outstanding teachers, policies that enable superior teachers to attain salaries that are close to those of outstanding researchers, and assigning variable teaching loads to professors so that those most interested in instruction can spend more time at it and be evaluated more on their teaching performance than on other factors. It called for the development of a Code of Teaching Responsibility, which would specify what was expected of faculty members in their teaching performance. A parallel statement of the Rights of Students to Receive Instruction was also proposed by the Commission, along with grievance procedures for students to use if they find that the code has not been met or that their rights have been infringed. The Commission believed "that students should know what to expect and to be able to seek relief if their warranted expectations have been disappointed" (*Reform on Campus*, p. 64).

Finally, the Commission recommended a new Doctor of Arts degree to serve as the standard degree for persons who engage in undergraduate teaching. In contrast to the research-oriented Ph.D. degree, this degree would emphasize a broader subject matter competence, teaching skills, and analytical, expository writing rather than a narrow research thesis.

> We consider it of great importance to reduce the impact of specialization and research on the entirety of higher education . . . . [T]he curriculum nearly all along the line is geared to the interests of the specialized instructor and to training the student for specialization. . . . We now select and train a student to do research; then employ them to teach; and then promote them on the basis of their research. This both confuses them and subverts the teaching process.
>
> We believe it will take a new degree with a new name and a new program to declare that teaching is also important and will be equally rewarded . . . (*Less Time, More Options*, p. 17).

The Commission advocated that students should be involved in the evaluation of their teachers. Students should complete evaluation forms on individual instructors whose courses they have taken and should form special committees to provide confidential advice to departments on teaching ability of faculty members. Their advice should be made a part of a professor's permanent record. The Commission did not endorse student membership on faculty promotion committees, because these committees must consider other criteria, such as research competence, and service to the institution, as well. But they believed that students

> often are good observers of the teaching-learning situation. In the absence of other tests of teaching performance, their advice. . . . is the best source of information now available (*Reform on Campus*, pp. 48-49).

Student Advising

The greater variety of interests and backgrounds of college students, and the increasing number of choices they are required to make in college, gives advising new importance. But it is not now a well-performed function. The Commission believed that academic counseling should be raised to a higher priority and become a more recognized responsibility of faculty members. In addition there should be well-trained professional counselors available for financial, vocational, and personal advising.

At the community college level these services are especially crucial. In their first two years, many community college students have not developed

clear educational and vocational goals—they need time to explore alternatives—and are "unusually vulnerable to interrelated financial, academic and personal pressures." A primary objective of advising at this level should be to encourage students to make informed decisions about those programs of study that are for immediate occupational preparation (terminal programs) and those that lead to careers that require further academic preparation (transfer programs).

The New Instructional Technology

Instructional uses of modern technology, such as cable television, videotape cassettes, computers, and audiovisual slide, tape, and filmstrip study units, may eventually revolutionize the campus. The new instructional technology will enable students to be more self-reliant and become more active in their own learning. It can increase the opportunities for independent study, give greater flexibility in class scheduling, make possible the repetition of classroom presentations, and facilitate "self-paced learning," in which students study at their own rates of speed. Such technology can also provide a greater variety of courses and different methods of instruction to choose from—whichever fits an individual student best. The creative use of these media can enrich the content of regular instruction and provide students with access to materials and presentations developed by exceptionally talented people all over the world.

The Commission recommended the full incorporation of instructional technology on campuses, finding that "the penetration of new learning materials and media into higher education has thus far been shallow" (*The Fourth Revolution*, p. 47). But it cautioned that technology, per se, does not constitute educational reform. The new instructional media should *not* be used as a substitute for good teachers, but rather as a tool for good teaching. Technology can expand the range of learning options available to students, but it can only be as creative and exciting as are the ideas of the people who design its uses. The Commission believed that

> . . . technology should be the servant and not the master of instruction. It should not be adopted merely because it exists. . . . The mere possession of learning media cannot guarantee an educational advantage for an institution. To be effective, technology must be used by inspired and skillful teachers . . ." (*The Fourth Revolution*, pp. 11, 13).

The use of new technology will require some changes. For example, students will need to develop new learning skills beginning in high school if they are to make the best use of some of this new technology—particularly

computers. As the variety of "teaching-learning modes" increases, new kinds of counselors will be necessary to provide students with good information and advice on the full range of learning options. Libraries will have to accommodate "nonprint" learning materials. And faculty will have to engage in more careful planning of instruction and accept new roles as managers of instruction and not as the sole dispensers of it.

Reform at Your College?

The Carnegie Commission did not talk about reforms at a fictitious college somewhere, but at the real ones students attend every day. However, change is likely to be accompanied by controversy in any established institution and is never easy to bring about. This fact should not deter one from advocating constructive reforms, but it should encourage individuals to undertake them in a process that involves broad discussion and consent. No reform proposal will be put to death more quickly than the one that pits organized students *against* organized faculty. Reforms have a much better chance of success if they are negotiated rather than imposed by one element of the campus on another.

The Carnegie Commission realized that its proposals were not the last word on directions for academic change at colleges and universities. Constantly changing conditions and emerging interests make on-going discussions of reform especially necessary. Only through a continual reevaluation of their role can colleges and universities hope to ensure their future vitality and responsiveness. As discussions of reform continue, students should have opportunities for their proposals to be heard, and should be included in the formal decision-making processes (as on departmental curriculum committees). The Commission believed that student involvement is essential to the continuing development of better academic programs.

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Project Nexus: Linking People with Questions, With People with Answers, American Association for Higher Education, One DuPont Circle, Suite 780, Washington, D.C. 20036.

4

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY DECISION MAKING

THE CARNEGIE COMMISSION believed that certain fundamental rights should be accorded to all members of the campus community and incorporated them into a Bill of Rights and Responsibilities (for complete text refer to the Appendix). Its central purpose, as expressed in the preamble, was to formally establish that:

> members of the campus have an obligation to fulfill the responsibilities incumbent upon all citizens, as well as the responsibilities of their particular roles within the academic community. All members share the obligation to respect:
>
> - The fundamental rights of others as citizens.
> - The rights of others based upon the nature of the educational process.
> - The rights of the institution.
> - The rights of members to fair and equitable procedures for determining when and upon whom penalties for violation of campus regulations should be imposed (*Dissent and Disruption*, p. 38).

A cardinal principle established by such a bill of rights is that members of a campus community have the important right to dissent and an important responsibility to prevent disruption. Dissent relies on persuasion and is essential in a free society, while disruption relies on coercion and is destructive of legitimate democratic processes. All members of the campus should observe the distinction and express their dissatisfaction in constructive ways with due regard to the rights of others to advocate differing viewpoints.

The principles set forth in the bill of rights are necessarily general, and individual campuses should adapt them to their own circumstances. The Commission urged each campus to hold open hearings on the formulation of such a document so that such deliberations produce the greatest possible understanding and the widest possible acceptance. The Commission believed that students should have full rights to initiate proposals for consideration.

Student Participation in Which Decisions?

The development of a bill of rights can be a significant step in clarifying relationships between various constituencies on campus—especially for students, faculty, and administrators. Each of these constituencies participates in the governance process on campus, but in different ways, as each has varied interests, objectives, and experience. Student involvement in decision-making contributes essential information about their experience and desires. The Commission supported greater student participation in those areas where students have the interest and the competence to contribute and where they will assume responsibility. In such situations students can give sound advice and exercise good judgment, becoming articulate participants in campus decision-making.

For example, the Commission thought that student governments should have substantial authority over student activities and that students should have significant influence on student disciplinary matters. But it did not favor including students (or faculty members) on boards of trustees or regents at their own institutions or as members of faculty senates. Instead, it endorsed voting rights for students on certain committees and the opportunity to nominate a certain number of outside persons for consideration as trustees. The Commission recommended that students serve on joint committees with faculty, trustees and administrators (or, in certain cases, parallel student committees) in areas such as, but not limited to, courses, educational policy, student affairs, public lectures and events, libraries, degree requirements, admissions policies, and student discipline. Students serving on such committees should be provided adequate staff assistance so that they are kept well informed and can quickly become effective members. A record of service on such committees should, at students' request, be included on their official transcript.

Some of the most valuable contributions of student participation can be made at the departmental level. Students are more closely aligned within a single field of interest than they are on the campus as a whole. Student representatives on departmental advisory committees can encour-

age the participation of other students by holding open hearings, circulating information, and conducting opinion surveys. When a recommendation of a faculty-student committee is brought before a departmental faculty meeting for consideration, the student committee members should have the right to attend the meeting and present their views.

The Commission favored selecting student representatives to committees at the departmental level through student elections. To select student members of campuswide committees, or other committees outside the departments, an electoral body should be formed, composed of the departmental representatives. This procedure should result in gaining a diversity of student opinion, given the widely varying interests of students in different departments, and would link the student members of campuswide committees more closely to actual conditions in different departments. However, the Commission emphasized that the representation of students was the most important issue—regardless of the selection process used.

Finally, some campuses may find it useful to develop mechanisms for gaining a sense of total campus opinion on important issues. One such agency is the "campus community council," made up of members of the faculty, administration, and students of a campus. Such councils can serve useful purposes as forums for exploring continuing problems, attitudes, and relationships in an institutional context, but the Commission recommended that they be advisory and not governing bodies.

New External Influence: The Student Lobbies

The 18-year-old vote has given students considerable potential influence with state and federal legislators. This development has encouraged a number of student government associations to establish "student lobbies" in their state capitols. These lobbies spend much of their time working on issues like financial aid, access, state budgets for their institution, collective bargaining, and childcare. Many of these organizations, in contact with political realities and public opinion, have rapidly become sophisticated about their goals and tactics. As a result of their existence, undergraduates can, for the first time, bring authoritative outside pressures to bear on the campus. The Commission found that this external power of students may come to exceed their current internal influence. However, it believed that not all campus problems should be solved externally. This can invite too much governmental involvement in campus affairs, and threaten reasonable institutional autonomy. The Commission recognized that student lobbies may be both necessary and desirable, but noted that, ". . . to the

extent that these lobbies obtain power, they will need to exercise restraint in its use. Given such restraint, they can be a constructive force" (*Governance of Higher Education*, p. 71).

Coping with the Bigger Picture

Certainly, a realistic perspective on student participation must fit into the larger context of institutional decision-making, including the roles of faculty, administrators, and trustees. The Commission found that decision-making in colleges and universities (often called "governance") has not followed a single consistent pattern, but has usually varied in relation to the specific functions performed. And since the variety of functions performed on a complex campus are so different, ranging from purchasing to teaching, it is inevitable that no one approach to decision-making would be adequate to all tasks. Decision-making is, after all, a means to certain ends and thus must be designed to best facilitate a given set of goals. Both the process and the products of decision-making should therefore be subject to evaluation. The Commission identified

> no single clear and universal theoretical approach to governance that can or should rule unquestioned. We believe, instead, that governmental methods should be related to the specific functions being performed; should vary in total pattern as the constellations of functions vary (*Governance of Higher Education*, p. 14).

Beginning in the 1960s with the rapid expansion in the size and importance of higher education, and continuing into the 1970s, campus decision-making has been marked by increasing conflict. The informal consensus of the past, on the forms and legitimacy of governance on campus, has broken down, putting considerable strain on the traditional forms of decision-making. The division of authority on campus and its relationship to external groups is being questioned more than ever before, and the differing viewpoints have become more at cross-purposes with one another. This conflict has, in large measure, resulted from disagreements over the goals and purposes of higher education. The Commission concluded that

> higher education needs to reaffirm its sense of purpose, for its own sake and for the sake of public understanding and assent. Higher education needs clearer answers to the question of "why?" . . . There has been no basic discussion of purposes, engaged in widely within higher education, for a century (*Priorities for Action*, p. 26).

While the Commission was optimistic about the development of a new consensus, it recognized that the decision-making structure would have to undergo some restructuring in order to meet new demands and to be capable of resolving more intense forms of controversy and conflict than were characteristic of the past.

One new governance development of the utmost significance to students is the unionization movement among college faculties. With collective bargaining for public employees being legalized in more and more states, pressures upon faculties to organize are growing. The inclination of faculties to unionize varies greatly in different kinds of institutions, and ranges from concerns solely limited to working conditions and salaries, to issues of educational policy and governance. As such, collective bargaining can represent only a supplement to existing forms of governance or can also form a completely new form of decision-making. The Commission did not take a position on its desirability, but did point out that collective bargaining agreements may potentially have a profound impact on student interests:

> Unionization by faculty members may give rise on some campuses to unionization by students. . . . It is interesting that while faculty unionization carries the connotation of a progressive alliance with the workers, it has the conservative reality of excluding students. Students may come to find that the participation they achieve in faculty-student committees is partly nullified by their exclusion from faculty bargaining units. They may seek to organize in response. This organization may be of a political rather than of a union nature, and faculty unions on campuses may face student political associations at the state capitol (*Governance of Higher Education*, pp. 43-44).

Collective bargaining poses one of the most fundamental issues in the recent history of college and university decision-making, and highlights the uncertainty that surrounds the governance issue. Whether campuses can forge a new sense of consensus or will become resolved to more conflict-prone environment is, at the present time, an open question. Within institutions that are not engaged in collective bargaining, the Commission believed that, given opportunities to actively participate in campus affairs and to express their opinions while recognizing the right of others to advocate differing viewpoints, students should be able to protect their legitimate interests, and to seek changes on their campuses that are responsive to their needs both as learners and as consumers within higher education. While seeking such participation in existing governance structures students

should, however, be aware of and prepared for developments that could alter these structures and thus affect the nature of their involvement in campus decision-making processes.

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United States National Student Association, 2115 S Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008.

5

THE EDUCATION RUSH: NOT EVERYBODY NEEDS IT NOW

The Carnegie Commission felt that the pathways to education and work should become more varied and much more flexible than they now are. More attention should be paid to alternative routes and careers, not just through higher education—the domain of colleges and universities. All forms of education after high school, broadly referred to as postsecondary education, should be given increased emphasis. Many people will never have the need or the interest to attend college; others may find college attendance to be much more meaningful two, or even twenty, years after high school than they would right after graduation. The Commission favored policies that would permit students to move in and out of postsecondary education at any time in their lives, shorten the time required to obtain degrees, and create better alternatives for high school graduates not going on to college. It urged

> that education should help create an easier flow of life for all persons from one endeavor to another; that it be a more universal tool of leverage on the processes of life; that, in particular, the walls between work and education be torn down (*Toward a Learning Society*, p. 15).

The Nonstop Four-Year Flight

For most people, college has come to mean a four-year undertaking that is completed all at once or not at all. The Commission believed that, in many cases, four years is too long for earning a degree. The time requirement is based more on historical practice than on educational grounds, and could be reduced without sacrificing quality. Much more than in the past, education now takes place before and after or outside of college. Students just

out of high school are often better educated than those who graduated a generation ago and often find their first year of college wasteful and repetitive. By eliminating the overlap and duplication between high school and college instruction, the time necessary to obtain a B.A. degree could be reduced to three years. Much of this duplication exists in the area of general education, and the Commission felt that

> on the grounds that competence is the measure of student achievement, not time served, it should be possible for students to meet general education requirements through tests . . . (*Continuity and Discontinuity*, p. 69).

A three-year degree will not adequately serve every student; some students might need five years to complete a college program, especially until all educational disadvantage at the primary and secondary levels is eliminated. But the time required should not be arbitrarily and rigidly defined; instead, it should be adapted to each individual student's level of achievement and learning pace.

At the graduate level, similar duplication and discontinuity exist, causing the Commission to conclude that the time required to attain a Ph.D. or an M.D. degree could be reduced by another one to two years without a loss of quality. The time saved by acceleration of these programs could be better used by students for additional training and updating later in their careers.

Dropouts or Stopouts?

Present policies usually require not only that students complete a set four-year program, but that they finish it in four consecutive years. Students who desire to interrupt their college program to do something else sometimes have difficulties being readmitted to their campus for continued study. Often they are lost to education, and bear the stigma attached to college "dropouts." Instead of dropping out, the Carnegie Commission proposed that students be able to "stop out" of college at any point in their study, for periods of work, travel, or service. This would give students who are uncertain of their educational goals an opportunity at proper intervals to reconsider how college fits into their personal and career objectives and still return to college at a later date. Another option proposed by the Commission was to defer attendance for one year after being accepted at a college or university in order to gain other kinds of experience. Too much pressure is put on students to attend college immediately following high school graduation. Stopouts and deferred attendance options would give students the ability, without being "penalized," to try out different acti-

vities as they select their future occupations and lifestyles and apply their productive skills in real-life situations.

Closely tied to the stop-out concept is the proposal to divide higher education into shorter modules, so that a degree would be available every two years. The community colleges now offer an associate degree after their two-year program and the Commission recommended that four-year institutions also follow this practice. This would reduce the stigma of being a drop-out and would create more points for students to reassess their educational objectives.

What Are the Alternatives to College?

Students who do not want to go on to college after high school or who stop out during college should have good information on alternative pursuits. Counseling programs should not focus exclusively on college attendance, but should help to clarify the best possible opportunities for each individual within the broad framework of postsecondary education.

Many other equally legitimate and rewarding pathways to life and work do exist, and they should be given greater emphasis as possible alternatives. These include privately run "specialty schools" that provide specific occupational and technical training in many fields, educational programs in business, labor unions, and the armed forces, as well as national service programs like the Peace Corps and VISTA. The Carnegie Commission believed that such programs should be greatly expanded. Participation in service programs and the military should entitle individuals to financial benefits similar to the present veteran's educational benefits that can be used for postsecondary education at any time in one's life.

Halting the Degree Machine

A college degree has come to be required for more and more occupations. If students are to be encouraged to pursue other paths to careers, and to move freely in and out of college, there will have to be less emphasis on college degrees as work qualifications and more emphasis on an individual's cumulative achievement record. Accomplishment should be seen in terms that include competence and knowledge acquired out of the classroom but measurable by examinations, extracurricular activities, work experience, and community or national service. Many employers have relied on college degrees alone as evidence that job applicants have acquired certain skills, but sole reliance on this certificaton reduces the options to talented individuals with competencies developed outside the classroom, and thus forces some young people into college who need not be there. After all, the real test of job competency is job performance.

Developing more internships and apprenticeship programs could provide significant opportunities for students to explore their interests and to demonstrate potential while gaining valuable training. These changes, proposed by the Commission, could significantly reduce the pressure on people to choose college as the only route to occupational certification and employment. The Commission felt that a significant number of college students could be classified as "reluctant attenders," individuals who are usually quite dissatisfied with their college experience, and attend against their will, due to parental pressure or because of the expected requirements of the jobs they seek. Stop-out programs, better alternatives to college, and less emphasis on degrees for job certification can all work toward providing reluctant attenders with alternatives more suited to their interests and career goals.

The Disappearance of the Automatic Job

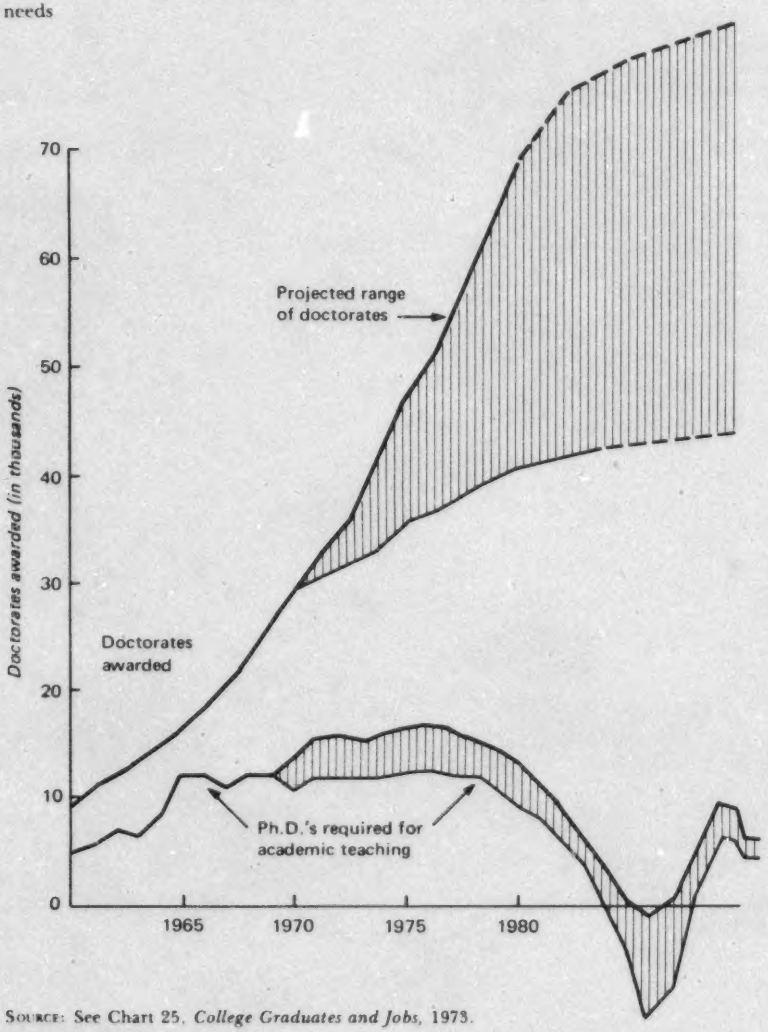
In the current decade it is estimated that over 25 percent of all college graduates will have to obtain jobs that have traditionally been filled by persons with less than a college education. This is a frustrating and traumatic situation for many students to contemplate. The prospects for white males who have doctorate degrees are especially dismal. They face an oversupplied job market, declining enrollments, and more active recruiting of women and members of minority groups—both underrepresented in college faculties. The Commission noted that

> [white males] constitute a special potential crisis situation that will result in massive disappointments in the later years of the 1970s and the early 1980s. This is the most single serious problem area we see ahead (*College Graduates and Jobs,* p. 8).

A college degree doesn't mean an automatic job, as it once did. So students should examine their interests and consider all of their alternatives carefully. The Commission felt that students should attempt to get broad training in college so as to have more versatility for future employment and should choose a career after reviewing as much information as possible on realistic employment prospects. But student choice of fields and majors should not be restricted by manpower considerations, and students should not be arbitrarily prevented from enrollment in an institution or discipline because of the prevailing labor market situation. Free student choice adapts rapidly to changing employment prospects, and colleges should generally respond to these choices rather than external conditions.

But, perhaps most importantly, students should view college as more than just preparation for a job. College is *one* route to a career, but not the only one, and it serves other purposes that are of at least equal importance:

CHART 7. Comparison of projected doctorates awarded and academic teaching needs



SOURCE: See Chart 25, *College Graduates and Jobs*, 1973.

The prospect of a higher-paying job is by no means the only reason for attending college. It may not even be the most important reason in many cases. The cultural advantages, the opening of new avenues of intellectual interest and appreciation, and the enhanced social

prestige associated with the college experience . . . [are all other meaningful purposes] (*New Students and New Places*, pp. 53-54).

If the Carnegie Commission's recommendations were implemented, students would spend less time in college in the future, have more alternative ways to enter careers open to them, be more able to move in and out of college as their interests and objectives dictate, and would have greater opportunities to pursue education throughout their lives. But it is only from the perspective of "lifelong learning" that the context of the Commission's recommendations can be viewed in their entirety.

Education Throughout Life

Life in American society has come to be characterized by three very sharp divisions. Individuals pursue formal education through college until the age of 21 or 22, full-time employment until age 65, and then retirement for the remainder of their lives. The Carnegie Commission, however, believed that, "ideally, learning, work, and leisure are part of a continuum stretching throughout the adult years" (*Toward a Learning Society*, p. 50). The benefits of continuing education at intervals throughout life are great in a technological era:

- Jobs are changing and require basic skills in advance and a willingness to continue training on the job and through course work.
- Skills are becoming obsolete faster, requiring periodic updating or retraining.
- More women after completing child-rearing desire to reenter the labor force.

These factors are increasing the advantages of spacing formal education throughout life, by reducing the time spent in education when people are young, and by spending additional time during later periods:

> College today supplies a smaller proportion of lifetime knowledge. It is one of many sources of knowledge and less a rare and onetime opportunity. The approach need not be as it once was: everything now and never again (*Less Time, More Options*, p. 8).

But under current practices, many individuals who miss the opportunity for postsecondary education after high school lose it for life. As a long-range strategy to guarantee adequate financial resources for people to attend postsecondary education later in life, the Commission proposed the

development of a national educational endowment program. Referred to as "two years in the bank," this program of financial assistance would remove considerable pressure on people to attend college immediately following high school.

> As one analyzes the economic and technological history of modern society, the movement toward recurrent lifetime education with adequate provision to offset personal income loss appears to be a logical step for the last quarter of the twentieth century. Particularly in the United States, where universal access to collegiate education is now nearly assured to all youth, the next step in the evolution of our educational system would seem to be the assurance that lifetime educational opportunities be within the reach of all motivated adults (*Toward a Learning Society*, p. 58).

The Commission stressed the need for continued research and discussion of these long-range proposals, but also believed that many programs should be developed immediately to accommodate "recurrent" adult students. Most older students are employed, often have families, and may live at a considerable distance from an existing campus. Thus they cannot attend college on a full-time basis. Part-time opportunities are exceedingly important for women who wish to continue their education after a period of child-rearing. These circumstances necessitate developing special programs for evening, weekend, and short-term study.

> Alternative avenues by which students can earn degrees or complete a major portion of their work for a degree [should] be expanded to increase accessibility of higher education for those to whom it is now unavailable because of work schedules, geographic location, or responsibilities in the home (*Less Time, More Options*, p. 20).

Some of these new "alternative avenues" will be provided by completely new institutions, often called extended campuses or "open universities," that cater to the part-time adult student. Others will be developed by existing campuses in the form of external degree programs. But the thrust of such programs is generally the same: to take education where the students are, which for many adults means off-campus. Especially in metropolitan areas, more students can be served with greater convenience by programs in industrial plants, business and government offices, libraries and school rooms. Educational resources such as museums, theaters, and parks can also be well utilized by such programs. The Commission stressed, however, that the establishment of open universities and external degree programs should not deter institutions from relaxing restrictions that make

it difficult for persons to enroll in regular campus programs on a part-time basis.

In densely populated areas and in remote areas not served by an existing campus, new learning resources are especially needed. The Commission recommended the development of Learning Pavilions in these areas where adults could drop in to study and to receive counseling. Such facilities can "provide a home base for adult learners, technological aids for independent study, basic educational programs, and general educational programs" (*The Campus and the City*, p. 50).

These new programs geared to the part-time adult student have correspondence courses or self-study programs as their core, aided by radio and television programs and local tutorials. They put considerable emphasis on independent study and credit awarded by examination. Better tests have to be developed for this purpose, but the most important consideration should come to be what students know and not whether they acquired their knowledge inside a classroom or not.

The new instructional technology will ultimately have a great impact on off-campus learning programs, enabling instruction to be brought to individuals at any location at any time, not restricted by the artificial barriers of a campus. The Commission believed that by the year 2000,

> it should be feasible for teachers and students to contemplate the ultimate dream of all those who have given serious thought to the potentials of the new media—a national interconnection of independent information, communication, and instructional resources, with the combined capacity of making available to any student, anywhere in the country, at any time, learning from the total range of accumulated human knowledge (*The Fourth Revolution*, p. 94).

Resource List

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A CONCLUDING NOTE

THE CARNEGIE COMMISSION proposals were aimed at making education after high school more accessible to all potential students and more relevant to their many interests and purposes. In the coming decades, education must also become responsive to the *changing* conditions and *changing* objectives of students. Thus, greater student participation in campus decision-making is essential if their goals and concerns are to be adequately considered. Faculty members, administrators, trustees, and governmental officials will continue to have a strong voice in initiating and affecting changes, but they cannot expect to make unilateral decisions *for* students, instead of *with* them. Students have rights as members of a campus community, and also have rights as consumers of learning who invest significant amounts of money and time in return for their education. The Commission summed up the implications of these proposals by noting:

> [Our] suggestions for more options [in attendance patterns], more diversity [of programs among and within individual institutions], and greater enrichment of programs would in totality, if effectuated, lead to a substantial amount of constructive change – even to a minor revolution, a revolution of free choice, of individualization of higher education, and would go quite beyond practices now generally in effect. . . . These proposals imply a "model" of the student, and the model we prefer is one of "self-reliance" . . . (*Priorities for Action*, p. 49).

The Carnegie Commission did not expect anyone to agree with all of its proposals, or think that some of its proposals might not become obsolete, or that other solutions might not be equally effective. But no proposal, the Commission's or others, will be implemented simply because it

has been uttered. While sound deliberation is necessary, effective action by individuals and groups will be required to bring about any changes and reforms. Appropriate action on any campus will vary according to its unique circumstances, but students should not feel restrained in advancing their concerns. Possible faculty unionization and the impact of collective bargaining on student interests make formal methods for their articulation all the more crucial, as even the benevolent concern of other groups for students has an unavoidable quality of paternalism. Student interests must, in the last analysis, be advanced by students themselves if they are to be realized. To the extent that the Carnegie Commission's work can contribute to an informed student perspective on important educational issues, the author's primary rationale for this publication will have been served. But the responsibility for advocacy, in translating any proposal into policy, rests solely with students themselves.

The Carnegie Foundation's aim in sponsoring this report was to enable students to gain a broad perspective on the Carnegie Commission's proposals. In order to make it of greatest use in many different situations, it has been written with the intention of serving as a readable, relatively short, and issue-oriented publication. The reader should be aware, however, that, within this context, it was possible only to present an overview of the Commission's work most related to student concerns. The reader is urged to refer to the Commission's original reports for more detailed discussion.

To make it possible for interested students to obtain additional resource materials on the subjects covered in this report, The Carnegie Foundation has made a special agreement with the National Student Educational Fund, a student-run, nonprofit educational organization established in 1972 for the purpose of mobilizing resources to help students develop student-responsive postsecondary educational research capabilities, to create and support information services for students, and to develop leadership training opportunities in Washington, D.C.

The Fund has developed five information kits based on the resource lists at the end of each section of this report. They are designed to provide students with up-to-date information and published materials on these issues, oriented to both general background and to specifically student-related concerns. To order any of these kits (at a small charge), simply fill out the tear-off form on the last page of this publication.

A new organization, the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies in Higher Education, has been established by The Carnegie Foundation to examine in greater depth some of the issues the Commission identified. A major Council study of undergraduate education is now in its initial stages, and the Council is developing a second National Survey of Student and Faculty Opinion for 1975.

Any of the Carnegie Commission's series of reports and recommendations can be ordered through the Council by filling out the order form at the back of this publication and enclosing proper remittance. Information about the Council's activities and future projects can be obtained by writing its office at 2150 Shattuck Avenue, Berkeley, California 94704.

A BILL OF RIGHTS AND RESPONSIBILITIES FOR MEMBERS OF THE INSTITUTION:

Faculty, Students, Administrators, Staff, and Trustees*

Preamble

Members of the campus have an obligation to fulfill the responsibilities incumbent upon all citizens, as well as the responsibilities of their particular roles within the academic community. All members share the obligation to respect:

- The fundamental rights of others as citizens.
- The rights of others based upon the nature of the educational process.
- The rights of the institution.
- The rights of members to fair and equitable procedures for determining when and upon whom penalties for violation of campus regulations should be imposed.

1 *As citizens, members of the campus enjoy the same basic rights and are bound by the same responsibilities to respect the rights of others, as are all citizens.*

Among the basic rights are freedom of speech; freedom of press, freedom of peaceful assembly and association; freedom of political beliefs; and freedom from personal force and violence, threats of violence, and personal abuse.

Freedom of press implies the right to freedom from censorship in

*From *Dissent and Disruption*, pp. 38-41.

campus newspapers and other media, and the concomitant obligation to adhere to the canons of responsible journalism.

It should be made clear in writings or broadcasts that editorial opinions are not necessarily those of the institution or its members.

The campus is not a sanctuary from the general law.

The campus does not stand *in loco parentis* for its members.

Each member of the campus has the right to organize his or her own personal life and behavior, so long as it does not violate the law or agreements voluntarily entered into, and does not interfere with the rights of others or the educational process.

Admission to, employment by, and promotion within the campus shall accord with the provisions against discrimination in the general law.

2 *All members of the campus have other responsibilities and rights based upon the nature of the educational process and the requirements of the search for truth and its free presentation. These rights and responsibilities include:*

Obligation to respect the freedom to teach, to learn, and to conduct research and publish findings in the spirit of free inquiry.

Institutional censorship and individual or group intolerance of the opinions of others are inconsistent with this freedom.

Freedom to teach and to learn implies that the teacher has the right to determine the specific content of his course, within the established course definition, and the responsibility not to depart significantly from his area of competence or to divert significant time to material extraneous to the subject matter of his course.

Free inquiry implies that (except under conditions of national emergency) no research, the results of which are secret, is to be conducted on a campus.

Obligation not to interfere with the freedom of members of a campus to pursue normal academic and administrative activities, including freedom of movement.

Obligation not to infringe upon the right of all members of a campus to privacy in offices, laboratories, and dormitory rooms and in the keeping of personal papers, confidential records and effects, subject only to the general law and to conditions voluntarily entered into.

Campus records on its members should contain only information which is reasonably related to the educational purposes or safety of the campus.

Obligation not to interfere with any member's freedom to hear and to study unpopular and controversial views on intellectual and public issues.

Right to identify oneself as a member of the campus and a concurrent obligation not to speak or act on behalf of the institution without authorization.

Right to hold public meetings in which members participate, to post notices, and to engage in peaceful, orderly demonstrations.

Reasonable and impartially applied rules designed to reflect the educational purposes of the institution and to protect the safety of the campus shall be established regulating time, place, and manner of such activities and allocating the use of facilities.

Right to recourse if another member of the campus is negligent or irresponsible in performance of his or her responsibilities or if another member of the campus represents the work of others as his or her own.

Right to be heard and considered at appropriate levels of the decision-making process about basic policy matters of direct concern.

Members of the campus who have a continuing association with the institution and who have substantial authority and security have an especially strong obligation to maintain an environment conducive to respect for the rights of others and fulfillment of academic responsibilities.

Tenured faculty should maintain the highest standards in performance of their academic responsibilities.

Trustees have a particular responsibility to protect the integrity of the academic process from external and internal attacks and to prevent the political or financial exploitation of the campus by any individual or group.

3 *The institution, and any division or agency which exercises direct or delegated authority for the institution, has rights and responsibilities of its own. The rights and responsibilities of the institutions include:*

Right and obligation to provide an open forum for members of the campus to present and debate public issues.

Right to prohibit individuals and groups who are not members of the campus from using its name, its finances, and its physical and operating facilities for commercial or political activities.

Right to prohibit members of the campus from using its name, its finances, or its physical and operating facilities for commercial activities.

Right and obligation to provide for members of the campus the use of meeting rooms under the rules of the campus, including use for political purposes such as meetings of political clubs; to prohibit use of its rooms on a regular or prolonged basis by individual members or groups of members as free headquarters for political campaigns; and to prohibit use of its name, its finances, and its office equipment and supplies for any political purpose at any time.

Right and obligation not to take a position, as an institution, in electoral politics or on public issues, except on those issues which directly affect its autonomy, the freedom of its members, its financial support, and its academic functions.

Right and obligation to protect the members of the campus and visitors to it from physical harm, threats of harm, or abuse; its property from damage and unauthorized use; and its academic and administrative processes from interruption.

Right to require that persons on the campus be willing to identify themselves by name and address, and state what connection, if any, they have with the campus.

Right to set reasonable standards of conduct in order to safeguard the educational process and to provide for the safety of members of the campus and the institution's property.

Right to deny pay and academic credit to members of the campus who are on strike, and the concomitant obligation to accept legal strikes legally conducted without recourse to dismissal of participants.

4 *All members of the campus have a right to fair and equitable procedures which shall determine the validity of charges of violation of campus regulations.*

The procedures shall be structured so as to facilitate a reliable determination of the truth or falsity of charges, to provide fundamental fairness to the parties, and to be an effective instrument for the maintenance of order.

All members of the campus have a right to know in advance the range of penalties for violations of campus regulations. Definition of adequate cause for separation from the campus should be clearly formulated and made public.

Charges of minor infractions of regulations, penalized by small fines or reprimands which do not become part of permanent records, may be handled expeditiously by the appropriate individual or committee. Persons so penalized have the right to appeal.

In the case of charges of infractions of regulations which may lead to notation in permanent records, or to more serious penalties such as suspension or expulsion, members of the campus have a right to formal procedures with adequate due process, including the right of appeal.

Members of the campus charged or convicted of violations under general law may be subject to campus sanctions for the same conduct, in accord with campus policies and procedures, when the conduct is in violation of a campus rule essential to the continuing protection of other members of the campus or to the safeguarding of the educational process.

ABOUT THE CARNEGIE COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION

THE CARNEGIE COMMISSION was established in the spring of 1967 by The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to make a systematic appraisal of higher education and to suggest guidelines for its future development. Its mission was to speak authoritatively and objectively as an independent voice *about* higher education rather than *for* it. The Commission issued 21 of its own reports on urgent and important problems in higher education as well as sponsoring over 80 research reports and technical reports. It issued its final report, *Priorities for Action*, in June of 1973, thus concluding the largest and most comprehensive study of its kind ever undertaken.

The members of the Commission were selected for their interest in education and for their ability to view it in the broad context of national problems and goals. They were:

Eric Ashby
The Master
Clare College
Cambridge, England

Ralph M. Besse
Partner
Squire, Sanders & Dempsey
Counsellors at Law

Joseph P. Cosand
Professor of Education and
Director
Center for Higher Education
University of Michigan

William Friday
President
University of North Carolina

The Honorable Patricia
Roberts Harris
Partner
Fried, Frank, Harris, Shriver &
Kampelman, Attorneys

David D. Henry
President Emeritus
Distinguished Professor of
Higher Education
University of Illinois

Theodore M. Hesburgh, C.S.C.
President
University of Notre Dame

Stanley J. Heywood
President
Eastern Montana College

Carl Kaysen
Director
Institute for Advanced Study
at Princeton

Kenneth Keniston
Chairman and Director
Carnegie Council on Children

Katharine E. McBride
President Emeritus
Bryn Mawr College

James A. Perkins
Chairman of the Board
International Council for
Educational Development

Clifton W. Phalen
Chairman of the Executive
Committee
Marine Midland Banks, Inc.

Nathan M. Pusey
President
The Andrew W. Mellon
Foundation

David Riesman
Henry Ford II Professor of
Social Sciences
Harvard University

The Honorable William W.
Scranton

Norton Simon

Kenneth Tollett
Distinguished Professor of
Higher Education
Howard University

Clark Kerr
Chairman

CARNEGIE COMMISSION REPORTS

1 *Quality and Equality: New Levels of Federal Responsibility for Higher Education,* December 1968; *Revised Recommendations,* June 1970
2 *A Chance to Learn: An Action Agenda for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education,* March 1970
3 *The Open-Door Colleges: Policies for Community Colleges,* June 1970
4 *Higher Education and the Nation's Health: Policies for Medical and Dental Education,* October 1970
5 *Less Time, More Options: Education Beyond the High School,* January 1971
6 *From Isolation to Mainstream: Problems of the Colleges Founded for Negroes,* February 1971
7 *The Capitol and the Campus: State Responsibility for Postsecondary Education,* April 1971
8 *Dissent and Disruption: Proposals for Consideration by the Campus,* June 1971
9 *New Students and New Places: Policies for the Future Growth and Development of American Higher Education,* October 1971
10 *Institutional Aid: Federal Support to Colleges and Universities,* February 1972
11 *The Fourth Revolution: Instructional Technology in Higher Education,* June 1972
12 *The More Effective Use of Resources: An Imperative for Higher Education,* June 1972
13 *Reform on Campus: Changing Students, Changing Academic Programs,* June 1972
14 *The Campus and the City: Maximizing Assets and Reducing Liabilities,* December 1972
15 *College Graduates and Jobs: Adjusting to a New Labor Market Situation,* April 1973
16 *Governance of Higher Education: Six Priority Problems,* April 1973
17 *The Purposes and the Performance of Higher Education in the United States: Approaching the Year 2000,* June 1973
18 *Higher Education: Who Pays? Who Benefits? Who Should Pay?,* June 1973

19 *Continuity and Discontinuity: Higher Education and the Schools*, August 1973
20 *Opportunities for Women in Higher Education: Their Current Participation, Prospects for the Future, and Recommendations for Action*, September 1973
21 *Toward a Learning Society: Alternative Channels to Life, Work, and Service*, October 1973
22 *Priorities for Action: Final Report of the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education*, October 1973

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The National Student Educational Fund has developed five information kits based on the resource lists at the end of each section. Each kit includes the Carnegie Commission report relied on most heavily for that section, one other major report on that subject, and 100 pages of important literature on the topic. To order, simply check the list below and fill out the reverse side of this card.

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